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AUTHOR Hadaway, Nancy L.; Cukor-Avila, Patricia
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ABSTRACT

A study of code-switching in a group of 35 Spanish-English bilingual third-graders is reported. The students' diary journal entries and writing assignments based on previous classwork are examined. Retelling of stories previously told by the teacher and the journal entries helped identify the kind of language used by students, the code-switching differences in oral versus written language, and the relationship of code-switching to the type or purpose of the writing. The study found evidence of language variation in the form of language interference and code-switching. Samples of interference clearly demonstrate the students' occasional need to fall back on first-language competence to communicate a message. Code-switching instances suggest a difference between previously reported language mixing in speech and code-switching in writing. Written code-switching was limited to single lexical items or very short phrases. In addition, the purpose of the writing appeared to affect code-switching tendencies, with more code-switching appearing in free-writing journal entries than in assigned work. Implications of the findings for the classroom writing environment are discussed. (MSE)

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COMPOSING IN TWO LANGUAGES: A BILINGUAL CHILD'S RESPONSE

Nancy L. Hadaway
Lecturer
Department of Educational Curriculum & Instruction
Texas A & M University

Patricia Cukor-Avila
Lecturer
English Language Institute
Texas A & M University

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The increasing enrollment in Spanish/English bilingual education programs has caused educators to take a new look at the special language problems these children face. Many come to school speaking only Spanish, yet with no formal education in that language. Surrounded by the English-speaking school environment, as well as English as a Second Language (ESL) instruction, these children will soon acquire their second language, English, to such a degree that they will be considered bilinguals. But what exactly does the term bilingual mean?

According to Fishman (1971) there are two types of bilinguals, stable and unstable. Stable bilinguals are non-native English speakers who maintain their first language (L_1) in home, work, and social environments. Since the L_1 is the language of the home, the children of stable bilinguals are raised speaking the parents' native language. Unstable bilinguals are also non-native English speakers; however, unlike the stable bilinguals, they will replace their L_1 with English in all domains. These children will be raised with an insufficient background in their native language, and as a consequence, will not feel completely comfortable linguistically in their L_1 environment.

Because the social and linguistic resources of the bilingual encompass the repertoire of two languages, it would seem only natural that the bilingual utilize both languages as a means of expression. This is, in fact, what the bilingual individual often does. The linguistic term for this phenomenon is code-switching.

The code-switching practiced by children in bilingual education programs is often seen by the teacher as a hindrance in the second language learning process. Teachers are mystified by code-switching behavior and try to no avail to correct this seemingly 'incorrect' language use.

Spanish/English code-switching in oral language is a well researched area; however, the analysis of code-switching in writing is one in which very little work has been done. Writing is an important component in the bilingual classroom. It is the hypothesis of the present researchers that if bilingual children are code-switching orally, then this same behavior should appear in written work since writing is a reflection of the spoken word.

Research on Language Variation

It is generally agreed that code-switching is the changing from one language to another. The change can be in the form of an entire sentence or within the sentence itself, in the form of phrases or individual words. On examination of the vast research that has been done on code-switching, specifically in oral language, one becomes aware of the lack of agreement and conflict among researchers (Sánchez, 1983; Jacobson, 1982; Gumperz and Hernández-Chavez, 1975; Lance, 1985; Reyes, 1982; Aguirre, 1978; Valdés, 1982; Poplack, 1982; Pfaff, 1982; Elias-Olivares, 1980; Peñalosa, 1980; Huerta, 1980).

Sánchez (1983, p. 140) defines code-switching as "shifting from one grammatical system to another. It is distinguished from borrowing in that the latter involves taking a term from another language and adapting it to one's own grammatical system, phonologically, morphologically, syntactically or semantically. Where two systems are maintained as distinct entities but juxtaposed within the same discourse, we have a case of code-switching."

However, Jacobson (1982, p. 183) disagrees with this distinction between borrowing and code-switching and notes that "not all instances

of language mixing can be considered code-switching in the true sense of the word. Lexical borrowings from the other language, regardless of whether or not they are phonologically or morphologically integrated into the receiving language, do not normally reflect code-switching practices." Thus, Sánchez' (1983, p. 140) example, "me dio un ride pa'l pueblo," as code-switching would not be categorized as such under Jacobson's definition. He would contend that 'ride,' although phonologically reproduced according to English rules simply represents the speaker's inability to think of the comparable Spanish word. (Jacobson, 1982).

According to Jacobson (1982, p. 184), "true code-switching occurs when the bilingual alternates between sentences...It also occurs when the speaker switches to his second language within the same sentence." His theories on code-switching are based on a sociological and psychological model. He divides code-switching into three categories; semi-code-switching, psychologically conditioned code-switching, and sociologically conditioned code-switching (Jacobson, 1982). The most pertinent category to the present research is that of sociologically conditioned code-switching. It is in this group that Jacobson includes domain and culture as influential factors for code-switching behavior.

Gumperz and Hernández-Chavez take a cognitive approach in analyzing code-switching. Similar to Jacobson, they feel that the topic of a conversation as well as terminology and expressions that are unfamiliar in the Spanish language and in Spanish-speaking settings, contribute to the switch from Spanish to English in a Spanish utterance. Switching from English to Spanish is also often done when the speaker is recalling a past event experienced in that language. Also included in their reasons for code-switching are the inability to find the right word, the

fact that certain referents are recalled more readily in one language than in another, and the topic of the conversation (Gumperz and Hernández-Chavez, 1975).

These researchers also note that certain Spanish expressions occurring in English sentences, such as ándale pues, no hombre, sí, pues, or este as well as the frequently used you know in English occurring in Spanish sentences, do not constitute code-switching. This differs from the views held by Jacobson.

Rogelio Reyes (1982) elects to use the term 'language mixing' to describe the bilingual's language switching behavior. He furthermore divides language mixing into three categories: code-switching, unassimilated borrowings, and assimilated borrowings. According to Reyes (1982, p. 163), code-switching involves "the alternate use in discourse of Spanish and English, in which the alternating segments have their own internal structure and do not depend on the rest of the discourse for their analysis." This idea is related to both Jacobson's (1982) and Aguirre's (1978) phrasal, intrasentential code-switching research. An example of this type of code-switching used by Reyes to illustrate his theory is "Cuando yo la conocí, 'Oh this ring, I paid so much,' y que todo lo que compran tienen que presumir." (When I met her, 'Oh this ring, I paid so much,' and that all that they buy they have to show off) (Reyes 1982, p. 154).

As previously stated, Reyes notes two types of borrowings, unassimilated and assimilated. He defines an unassimilated borrowing as "the use of an English lexical item, phonetically unassimilated and morphologically invariable, in the context of a Chicano Spanish syntactic frame. The mixing of phonologies of English and Spanish within the same word cannot occur." (Reyes 1982, p. 163) It would seem that Reyes has

narrowed the widely accepted definition of a lexical borrowing, that of the general use of a term by a large population, to refer to only the 'Chicano' Spanish-speaking segment of the population. He reports sentences such as, "Va a reenlist," and "Los están busing pa otra escuela" (Reyes 1982, p. 154) (He's going to reenlist and They are busing them to another school) as examples of unassimilated borrowing.

The final category, assimilated borrowings, includes those lexically switched English words or phrases which are morphologically and phonologically adapted into the Spanish grammatical framework (Reyes, 1982). These are words which are commonly referred to as 'Tex-Mex' or even 'Spanglish.' Reyes' examples are, "Taipo las cartas" (I type the letters) and "Puchamos el carro" (We push the car) (Reyes 1982, p. 154).

After a careful analysis of the aforementioned research as well as several other studies in the area of oral Spanish/English code-switching, the present researchers have created a model for language variation in the writing of young bilingual children.

Two types of language variation were differentiated, language interference and code-switching. Language interference is often viewed as a negative factor in second language learning. The term 'interference' generally refers to something that gets in the way; therefore, language interference seemingly implies that one's acquired L_1 grammatical system would hinder the acquisition of a second language. Krashen and Terrell (1983, p. 41) disagree stating that "errors that show the influence of the first language are simply the result of 'falling back' on the first language when we lack a rule in our second language . . . . An acquirer will substitute some first language rule for a rule of the second language if the acquirer needs the rule to express himself but has not yet acquired it." The term 'language

interference' used in the present work complies with the model proposed by Krashen and Terrell.

For the purpose of the present study, the term 'code-switching' will encompass those single lexical items and short phrases that are intrasentential language switches. Language variation in alternating sentences, that is the mixing of Spanish and English within the same paragraph at the sentence level, is also categorized as code-switching. Brand names and accepted lexical borrowings in either Spanish or English as well as phonological adaptations and vowel substitutions between the two languages have been excluded from the data and are seen as non-code-switched items. To explain code-switching behavior, a sociological and psychological standpoint is taken, as it is seen as the most pertinent for the analysis of code-switching in writing.

Research Questions

This study will consider three questions. What types of language variation are seen in the writing of bilingual children? Second, most research on code-switching has been concerned with language mixing in the more informal process of speech. Does code-switching differ in the more formal process of writing? Finally, students write for varied purposes. Does the type or purpose of the writing assignment have any influence on language variation among bilingual students?

Subjects and Data Collection Procedures

In order to ascertain the prevalence of written code-switching and language variation among bilingual children, writing samples were

elicited from thirty-five third graders in a bilingual classroom. All these students had been previously tested and diagnosed as Spanish dominant, and therefore, had been assigned to a bilingual class. There were varying levels of both Spanish and English proficiency among the students; some demonstrated literacy skills in both languages while others possessed only minimal or limited skills in either language, especially English.

Writing samples were collected weekly from January through May of the 1985 school year. The students' writing reflected different tasks including free writing in journals, assigned writing topics drawing from prior instructional units, and the retelling of stories which had been read aloud by the teacher. A total of 458 separate writing samples of varying lengths were collected. These writing samples were then examined by the researchers and classified according to a model of language variation instances. Two categories evolved, language interference and code-switching.

Discussion of Results

Of the thirty-five bilingual subjects, twenty-nine wrote every sample in English; only six students had some writing in Spanish. The majority of Spanish writing was done in the free writing of journals with English predominating in the assigned writing tasks. However, one student had both English and Spanish journal entries. Among these thirty-five subjects, many demonstrated instances of language interference, but only seven actually engaged in code-switching, either English to Spanish or Spanish to English.

In examining the 458 separate writing samples collected from third grade bilingual students, the researchers discovered two types of language variation. These instances of language mixing were classified by the researchers as language interference and code-switching. Instances of language interference (see Appendix A for a list of examples) were the most numerous of the two classifications.

When discussing language interference, it is important to remember that these errors are not so much an indication of the first language intruding into second language learning, but rather they are signs of incomplete second language acquisition which necessitate a falling back to first language knowledge (Krashen, 1981; Krashen and Terrell, 1983). There were numerous examples of this type of mixing of language rules; all of which were found in the English writing samples.

Difficulties with the article 'the' were common. Students wrote sentences such as the following:

We go to the church.
We went to the Taco Bell.
We went to the Wal Mart.

Spanish makes use of the article in many instances which English does not. Therefore, the first sentence above would be translated into Spanish as, Vamos a la iglesia, requiring the use of the article. The remaining sentences would not require the use of the article in Spanish or English but indicate the difficulty with more frequent use of Spanish articles.

Idiomatic expressions also proved troublesome. In Spanish tener años is used to express age. Thus, in Spanish one would say Juan tiene 5 años or literally, John has five years. This idiom resulted in a direct translation from the Spanish for two students:

he got 15 years old
He had 20 years old.

Another area of difficulty is the use of the subject pronoun with the verb. Because Spanish is a highly inflected language no subject pronouns are required. Thus, a student writes:

in sunday ____ go to the perk and play. in sunday ____
will go to chorch and today ____ ore in schol.

She has left out all subject pronouns because in Spanish they are unnecessary. A second student also had trouble in this regard when she wrote "and ____ is cold" which in Spanish would be y tiene frío with no subject pronoun needed.

The Spanish verb hacer also proved problematic. Hacer can be translated 'to do' or 'to make' and also has several idiomatic uses as in hacer un viaje (to take a trip) or hacer una fiesta (to have/plan a party). The following examples from student writing clearly show language interference as a result of the verb hacer:

We mark a pretty (We make a party)
I like to do a snowman.
he did a wrath (he did a wreath)
he did cookies
I made math ot home (I made math at home)

The verb poner, 'to put' or 'to place' was also troublesome. Students in describing Christmas write:

I like Christmas because we put a tree.
We put a big Christmas tree.

In Spanish, the last sentence would be Pusimos un árbol de Navidad. The verb form pusimos (we put) would be all that was required in Spanish; however, in English the particle 'up' is also needed in these two cases. Another student has difficulty with poner when she quite literally writes, "The name I put my rabbit," which in Spanish would be translated El nombre que le puse a mi conejo.

Other examples of language interference include constructions with the English verb 'to go.' Problems arise because the Spanish ir + a and ir + a + infinitive constructions require the use of the Spanish particle, a. Thus, students tended to account for the a by using 'to' in English even when it was not required.

Thea wet to home. (They went to home)
(In Spanish, Fueron a casa)
I went to swim. (In Spanish, Fuí a nadar.)
We went to swimming. (In Spanish, Fuímos a nadar.)

Literal translation of Spanish to English also caused difficulty. One young girl in writing about Halloween states, "Last night I went to tell trick or treat all the house." In Spanish, this would be, Anoche fuí a decirles trick or treat. . . . Another student notes, "I like spring much" which in Spanish is translated Me gusta la primavera mucho.

Finally, one student misplaces the modifier in the sentence, "I look the bactle final," demonstrating the Spanish syntactic pattern of placing descriptive adjectives after the noun.

Thus, one can discover many instances of language interference or return to first language knowledge in the writing of these bilingual children.

The second form of language variation present in these writing samples was code-switching. As stated previously, for this study, the researchers classified single lexical items as well as phrasal items in a language different from the main text as code-switching; however, accepted borrowings and brand names were excluded as code-switching.

Twenty-one samples of writing had evidence of code-switching (see Appendix B for a complete listing). The variety of language variation in this category was quite interesting. Some switches were clearly dictated by sociologically conditioned variables as when one young boy

writes, "The posuds was at 6:00." Here he refers to the Mexican custom of reenacting the posadas at Christmas. Discussing holidays seemed to be a rich source of language mixing. In another journal entry in Spanish, a student must switch to English in describing Halloween. He writes, "El día de Halloween mi mamá nos dejó ir a trick or treat." (Halloween day my mother let us go trick or treat). In describing a Halloween party a young girl recalls going into a room where all the men were dressed up as "una wich" (witches). She further notes that she had chosen a Strawberry Shortcake costume for Halloween, but she coins an interesting mix of English and Spanish, finally adapting it to freisty (form of fresa) chorquer.

At times students were consistent in their language usage except for a single item. A student in his retelling of a story states, "Gim sa a man in the window y was pa y was tame to ride a story y was time to resd y was tame to play." (Jim saw a man in the window and it was papa and it was time to read a story and it was time to read and it was time to play). This sample demonstrates a consistent use of English in the text with a consistent code-switch to the Spanish y instead of the English 'and.'

On an assigned writing topic about the state of Texas, one girl writes, "The grande pueplo is Houston rio Grande is hte grande river Amarillo va para nort Texas . . . ." (The biggest city is Houston. Río Grande is the biggest river. Amarillo is in north Texas). In addition, she refers throughout this sample to the geographical directions north, south, east, and west, but she uses este each time in place of the English 'east.'

Places and items common in the students' lives sometimes precipitated code-switching. One student describes breakfast noting, "comimos

confiles y milk." Once she has utilized the brand name Corn Flakes, she goes on to switch to English utilizing 'milk' instead of the Spanish leche. Another student in describing a visit to grandfather's house notes that they also visited the cemetery, "we go to the pantion." Here she switches to the Spanish panteón instead of using the English 'cemetery.'

Thus, the language mixing demonstrated in this language variation category of code-switching may be prompted for a variety of reasons.

As stated previously, work on code-switching has focused solely on speech, this study has considered code-switching behavior occurring in the more formal process of writing and how that may differ from the more informal behavior of speech. The majority of research studies have reported code-switching in speech at the lexical level as well as at the phrase level within sentences and in alternating sentences between languages. However, in the writing samples collected for this study, code-switching occurred in only twenty-one of the total 458 samples, and the language variation among these young students was limited to single lexical items or short phrases. Switching occurred in both directions with the instances quite closely divided; eleven writing samples in English showed evidence of switches to Spanish, and ten samples in Spanish had some mixing in of English lexical items.

The limited extent of language variation in these writing samples may indicate that the more formal process of writing has an impact on code-switching behavior, although Lindholm and Padilla (1978) found similar results in their examination of code-switching in the speech of young bilingual children. They tallied language mixing per spoken utterance and reported only two percent switching which was limited mainly to single lexical items but with the major direction of shift

occurring from Spanish into English. Differing research results may spring from the fact that other studies have focused their attention on code-switching among older youth and adults.

Yet the processes of speech and writing do differ, and this may certainly affect code-switching behavior. Speech may precipitate more frequent and/or complex code-switching because two or more bilinguals are involved in a dialogue and are reacting to each other's input in a context dependent situation. Furthermore, language mixing may occur more often in speech because in a conversation topics change, thus, necessitating language variation. In writing, however, the student is involved in a monologue on paper with a central focus or topic, a context independent activity. These factors may well have influenced the fewer instances of code-switching which were found.

Different writing experiences, whether free writing or assigned topics, also seemed to have an impact on the frequency of code-switching. More instances of language mixing were found in the free writing in journals. Of the twenty-one writing samples which displayed evidences of code-switching, fourteen were journal writings, two were the retelling of a story which had been read aloud by the teacher, and five were assigned writing topics drawn from previous instructional material.

Several factors may account for the code-switching found in these journal entries. First, students are free to write about any topic in their journals; therefore, they tend to choose personal experiences about home and school, friends and family. In addition, these students live in a bilingual environment where their experiences are colored by two languages and two cultures, and this enables them to draw linguistically from two sources. The influence of this more personal

experiential domain and the fact that bilingual children have more actual language to share in this realm may precipitate the increased code-switching found in the journal entries.

On the other hand, the assigned writing topics and the retelling of stories drew exclusively from previously encountered instructional input in English. Few of the students had encountered this information before in Spanish, as in the assigned writing samples in which students described the planets in our solar system. This type of writing exercise may preclude a great deal of code-switching as the technical vocabulary related to the school domain may be more fully developed in English than in Spanish. Furthermore, the student may simply associate certain topics with the domain of school, and since these items have been introduced in English, the stimulus for language variation is not present. However, when school topics and previous background experiences in Spanish intersect, then the student is more likely to engage in code-switching behavior. For instance, in the assigned writing task on Christmas, one young girl states, "I like Navidad. I like Christmas." Clearly she has two sets of cultural norms from which to draw; she is surrounded by both the typical American holiday season and her own very special Mexican customs. Thus, the type of writing experience can dictate the presence or absence of code-switching behavior.

In conclusion, in examining writing samples collected from thirty-five students in a third grade bilingual classroom, the researchers found evidence of language variation in the form of language interference and code-switching. Samples of language interference clearly demonstrate the students' need to occasionally fall back on first language competency in order to get the message across. The instances of code-switching which were found may indicate a difference between the

language mixing previously researched in the speech of bilinguals and that discovered in the writing of bilingual children in this study. The code-switching behavior found here was limited to single lexical items or very short phrases. In addition, the purpose for writing seemed to impact on code-switching tendencies. When students were assigned topics to write about, they exhibited fewer switches than when they were engaged in the free writing of journals.

More research into the area of language variation in the writing of bilinguals is needed as this has been a relatively unexplored area, and there are many questions in relation to writing behavior and language mixing which are still to be answered.

Implications

The few instances of actual code-switching which were discovered in the writing of these third grade students would seem to indicate that the children have differentiated the two languages and their systems. Contrary to critics' statements that many of these children have no real language, it would appear that these students are actively involved in the process of learning and differentiating English and Spanish. Their difficulties arise from limited acquisition of the second language which forces them to fall back on their first language proficiency, and in some instances this may also be limited.

An important lesson to be gleaned from this study is that teachers should create more risk free environments where students feel comfortable to make mistakes in the expression of their ideas. Code-switching and language interference may indicate strategies the writer has devised to generate meaning and continue uninterrupted with the writing process.

After all, one can always return to a written copy for revision and editing. At that point, the teacher can help the student through second language concerns.

In addition, teachers need to be aware that language and culture are inextricably bound, and some code-switching may serve to indicate cultural norms that are at work in the students' lives.

To conclude, instead of perceiving language variation as a simple lack of knowledge and reacting to it with a sense of frustration, teachers should consider the fact that bilinguals have two systems from which to draw, and conflict between these is both logical and natural. Furthermore, the strategies that children devise to get their message across indicate a rich diversity of meaning and symbols they have discovered in both their own first language and their new second language.

APPENDIX A

EXAMPLES OF LANGUAGE INTERFERENCE

We go to the church.
We went to the Taco Bell.
We went to the Wal Mart.

he got 15 years old
he had 20 years old.

in sunday ____ will go to the perk and play. in sunday ____ will go to chorch and today ____ ore in schol.
and ____ is cold.

We mark a pretty (We make a party)
I like to do a snowman.
he did a wrath (he did a wreath)
he did cookies
I made math ot home (I made math at home)

I like Christmas because we put a tree.
We put a big Christmas tree.
The name I put my rabbit (In Spanish, el nombre que le puse a mi conejo)

Thea wet to home. (They went to home) (Fueron a casa)
I went to swim. (In Spanish, Fui a nadar)
We went to swimming. (In Spanish, fuimos a nadar)

Last night I went to tell trick or treat all the house. (In Spanish, anoche fui a decirles trick or treat . . . .)

I like spring much. (In Spanish, me gusta la primavera mucho.)

I look the battle final.

APPENDIX B

EXAMPLES OF CODE-SWITCHING

I. English to Spanish (the predominant text is English with lexical switching to Spanish)

The posuds was at 6:00.
(The posadas were at 6:00).

Fevrero 15, 1985 (at the top of an English composition)
(February 15, 1985)

Gim sa a man in the window y was pa y was tame to ride a story y was time to resd y was tame to play.
(Jim saw a man in the window and it was papa and it was time to read a story and it was time to read and it was time to play).

Austin is the capital ciry of Texas Mexico is going to Sauth. Dallas gos to nort este. Nort gos Este gos West gos Sauth gos The grande pueplo is Houston rio Grande is hte grande river Amarillo va para nort Texas Bryan is a siey Brasos conty is a conty The unite of state is a contry gos to is sauthe west if you go to is sauth este if you go to is norte west
(Austin is the capital city of Texas. Mexico is going to the south. Dallas goes to the north east. North goes East goes West goes South goes. The biggest city is Houston. Rio Grande is the biggest river. Amarillo is in north Texas. Bryan is a city. Brazos County is a county. The United States is a country. Goes to is southwest. If you go to is southeast. If you go to is northwest).
(*Note: In the above sample, the young girl was using arrows in the spaces shown pointing to the various directions).

Then we go to see my grandfather to his house. We go to the pantion.
(Then we went to see my grandfather at his house. We went to the cemetery).

The techor set inow (y ahora)
(The teacher said, "And now.")

I like Navidad. I like Christmas.

We open presentes in Christmas.
(We open presents on Christmas).

We cere eggs on the hede. (quebrar)
(We break eggs on the head).

I was played soccerbol with my girlfrend.
(I played soccer with my girlfriend).

He s aneios (seis años)
(He is six years old)

II. Spanish to English (the predominant text is Spanish with lexical switching to English)

yo y mis ermanas y mi mama fuimos a la ciri michen y nos dieron regales y le decimos a la senora primero cuatos anos y yo le dege 8 y me dieron un regalo
(My sisters and my mother and I went to the City Mission. And they gave us gifts, and a lady said to me first, "How old are you?" And I said 8, and they gave me a gift).

El dia de Halloween mi mama nos dejo ir a trick or treat y nos dieron dulces pas tel y dinero y fuymos a una casa a trick or treat
(Halloween day my mother let us go trick or treat and they gave us candy, cake, and money and we went to a house to trick or treat).

des pues me meti adentro de un guarto solo donde estan todos los senores difrasados de una wich despues yo me difrase de fresity chorquer y mi ermano se difraso de vismen y mi ermanito se difraso de popeye popo
(After I went inside a room where all the men were dressed up as witches. Afterwards I dressed up as Strawberry Shortcake and my brother dressed up as Beastman and my little brother dressed up as Popeye).

i yo le dige hai y Miss Dunn me digo hai.
(And I told her, "Hi," and Miss Dunn told me, "Hi.")

la mallana comimos confiles y milk ides pues bile a la clase
(In the morning, we ate Corn Flakes and milk and afterwards I went to class).

Mi cam witch es muy grande my bed
(My bed which is very large, my bed).

esta estodo poroi de october 16, 1984
(This is all for today, October 16, 1984).

Josem ecue cabu (José juega cowboy)
(José is playing cowboy).

Earth has wotre palneta El sol es calente No mas
(Earth has water planet. The sun is hot. No more).

Santcos letaco una realo a Miss Ducee Mom and Bod. I con Merry Christmas. Miss Dusce. I con too. Santcos sale ala tose.
(Santa Claus brought a gift to Miss Dunn. Mom and Dad, I can. Merry Christmas. Miss Dunn, I can too. Santa Claus goes out at night).

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